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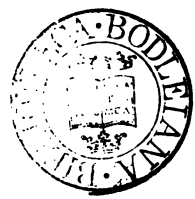
With Exercises and Questions

ILLUSTRATED.

BY

ROBERT ARMSTRONG

MADRAS COLLEGE, ST ANDREWS



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PREFACE.

THE following pages have been written with the view of supplying Junior Classes with an easy introduction to the Elements of Grammar. They are composed in the narrative form, and divided into lessons which are treated in a simple and familiar manner. By the adoption of this arrangement greater facility is afforded for explanation and illustration, and for rendering the subject more attractive than it usually appears to the young. As there is no reason why the rudiments of grammar should not be made intelligible to children as soon as they can read, it is hoped that these lessons may be the means of accomplishing so desirable an object. They contain all that is necessary for an elementary text-book, and are intended as preparatory to the use of the more advanced 'PRACTICAL ENGLISH GRAMMAR.'

The illustrations introduced are designed as further aid to the Juvenile Grammarian.

R. A.

MADRAS COLLEGE, ST ANDREWS,
1868.

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NARRATIVE

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

PART I.—ON LETTERS.

Lesson I.—The Letters of the Alphabet.

THE ALPHABET consists of twenty-six letters. All the words in the English language are made up of these twenty-six letters. Seven of them are called **Vowels.** They are *a*, *e*, *i*, *o*, *u*, *w*, *y*. If you sound them, you will find that they give out clear open sounds. *W* and *y* have names different from their sounds: *w* has the sound of *u*, and *y* has the sound of *i*.

All the other letters of the alphabet are called **Consonants**. The consonants are *b*, *c*, *d*, *f*, *g*, *h*, *j*, *k*, *l*, *m*, *n*, *p*, *q*, *r*, *s*, *t*, *v*, *x*, *z*. Some of them have the same sound:

c soft, as in *cell*, has the same sound as *s*;
c hard, as in *can*, has the same sound as *k*;
q is always followed by *u*, and is sounded like *k*;
g soft, as in *giant*, resembles *j*; and
x is equal to the two consonants *k* and *s*, or *g* and *s*, as in the words *box*, *exact*.

You will have noticed that the letters of the alphabet are printed in two ways or forms, making large and small letters. The large letters are called **Capitals**; and you may have observed that the capitals are used only in certain places. Remember that *I*, meaning a person, and *O*, an exclamation, are always written and printed in capitals. Remember, too, that capital letters must always be made

at the beginning of the names of persons and places—as, *John*, *London*;
at the beginning of the days of the week—as, *Monday*, *Tuesday*;
and at the beginning of the months of the year —as, *June*, *July*.

EXERCISE.

Point out the words that should begin with capitals.

They say that london is a very large city. Brothers john and james live there, and like it very much. Sister mary is going up

to see them next summer. o ! how i wish i were going with her. Brother john is coming down to see us next week; we expect

View of London.

him on friday or saturday. He talks of going to new york in october or november. new york is the largest city in america.

Lesson II.—Syllables.

Letters are joined together to form **Words**. The three words, ***I, O,* and *a*** consist of only one letter; but words generally are made up of two, three, or more letters. Long words are divided into parts called **Syllables.** A syllable is a part of a word sounded by itself. *Joy*, for instance, is a word of one syllable, because the letters are all pronounced at once. In the word *joyful* there are two syllables: *joy* is the first syllable, and *ful* is the second. *Joyfulness* has three syllables—*joy-ful-ness; favourable* has four—*fa-vour-a-ble;* and *unfavourably* has five—*un-fa-vour-a-bly.*

A word of one syllable is called a **Monosyllable**;
a word of two syllables is called a **Dissyllable**;
a word of three syllables is called a **Trisyllable**;
and a word of more than three syllables is called a **Polysyllable.**

In spelling words you should always stop at the end of each syllable. Pronounce the word first, and notice the different parts that are sounded by themselves. In spelling the word *pronunciation* you would divide and stop in this way—*pro-nun-ci-a-tion.*

EXERCISE.

Point out monosyllables, dissyllables, trisyllables, and polysyllables.

If you go down to the sea-shore, you will notice many pretty things. As you are wandering along you may pick up beautiful stones and finely coloured shells. Some of them are curiously

Sea-shore, with rocky pools.

and wonderfully formed. You will observe numerous little plants growing on the rocks and in the shallow pools. Nature everywhere abounds in objects of beauty and interest.

PART II.—ON WORDS.

I. THE DIFFERENT KINDS OF WORDS.

Lesson III.—The Noun.

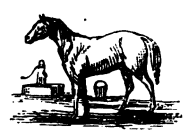
Words are used in speaking: they form what are called Sentences. There are thousands of words in the English language. Words are divided into eight kinds or classes, which are called the **Eight Parts of Speech.** They are so called because our speaking or speech is made up of them. You must get by heart the eight parts of speech. They are the

Noun,	Pronoun,	Adverb,	Conjunction,
Verb,	Adjective,	Preposition,	Interjection.

The most useful kinds of words are the NOUN and the VERB. You cannot speak about anything without using both the noun and the verb. The Noun is the name of anything. Whatever you see, hear, touch, or think about, must have a name. You know that there are

names of persons—as, *John, William, Mary;*
names of places—as, *England, Scotland, London;*

John.



Horse.

Dog.

(*Nouns.*)

names of animals—as, *horse, cow, sheep, dog;*

names of things that grow—as, *tree, flower, wheat;*

Tree.

Plough.

(*Nouns.*)

names of things used for working—as, *spade, plough, harrow, hammer;*
names of things used in school—as, *book, slate;*

Book.

Slate.

(*Nouns.*)

names of things that cannot be seen by the eye, nor touched by the hand—as, *goodness, kindness, joy.*

These, and all other names, are called NOUNS.

But there are different kinds of nouns. There are particular names—such as names of persons and places: these are called **Proper Nouns.** There are names that are common to a number of things of the same kind: these are called **Common Nouns.** *London* is a proper noun, because it is the name of a particular town; but *town* is a common noun, because it is common to a number of places. *Thames* is a proper noun, because it

is the name of a particular river; but *river* is a common noun, because it is common to all running waters of a certain size. In the same way, *Edward*, *Elizabeth*, *France*, *Paris*, *Snowdon* are proper nouns; and *boy*, *girl*, *country*, *city*, *mountain* are common nouns. Then we have the names of things that cannot be seen nor touched: these are called **Abstract Nouns.** They are quite different from Proper and Common Nouns. You can see a mountain and a tree, and you can touch a book or a chair, but you cannot see or handle *kindness*, or *cleverness*, or *anger*. You can only think of them.

Remember that

(1.) **A Noun is the name of anything.**

(2.) **There are three kinds of Nouns—Proper, Common, and Abstract.**

EXERCISE.

Point out all the nouns first, and then tell whether they are proper, common, or abstract.

John is a good boy. He likes to go to school and say his lessons. His teachers and schoolfellows shew him great kindness. The school has a large playground, where the boys play at cricket, and football, and other games. Accidents sometimes happen in the playground. One day the boy Jones had his leg broken at football; but he was always running into danger. Jones is a Welshman; he comes from Wales. Wales is part of England; it is full of mountains. William and Edward are John's intimate companions. They come from London, and they are fond of telling him about the river Thames. If John shews diligence and makes improvement, his papa will perhaps take him to London in summer.

Lesson IV.—The Verb.

The VERB shews what the noun *is*, or what the noun *does*. All verbs, except the verb *to be*, affirm that nouns do something. The verb *to be* shews what the noun is—as, *John is good*, *The house is small*. You will easily know all other verbs by their shewing what the nouns do. What do boys and girls do at school? They *read*, *write*, *count*, and *sing*. *Read*, *write*, *count*, and *sing* are all verbs, because they shew what boys and girls do at school. What does the farmer do in his fields? He *ploughs*, *sows*, *harrows*, *reaps*. What does he go to the market to do? To *buy* and *sell*. The gardener *digs*; the blacksmith *hammers*; and the baker *bakes*. All the words that shew what the farmer, the gardener, the blacksmith, and the baker do are VERBS.

Now there are two kinds of verbs—**Transitive** and **Intransitive**. These are two big words, but you must try to remember them after I have explained them. A verb that shews what one noun does to another is called a *transitive* verb, because it passes what is done from one

John *strikes* the *nail*.

The boy *tore* his *book*.

(*Transitive Verbs.*)

noun to another. When I say, *John strikes the nail*, the

verb *strikes* shews what the noun *John* is doing to the noun *nail:* it shews that John *strikes something.* In the same way, *tore* is a transitive verb, when I say, *The boy tore his book;* and *teaches* is a transitive verb, when I say, *The master teaches the scholars;* and *obey* is a transitive verb, when I say, *Children obey their parents.* And you will notice from these examples that the transitive verb has a noun before it and a noun after it.

The *intransitive* verb is different. *Intransitive* means *not transitive,* and intransitive verbs are so called because they do not pass what is done from one noun to another. The intransitive verb shews that the noun does something itself without doing it to any other noun; as, *John walks.* The verb *walks* is intransitive, because it shews

Birds *fly.*

The dog *sleeps.*

The ship *sails.*

The boys *swim.*

(*Intransitive Verbs.*)

that John *does* something himself, without doing it to any other person or thing. In the sentences,

Birds *fly,* The dog *sleeps,*
The ship *sails,* The boys *swim,*

the four verbs, *fly*, *sails*, *sleeps*, and *swim*, are all intransitive, because the birds cannot *fly* anything, nor the ship *sail* anything, nor the dog *sleep* anything, nor the boys *swim* anything. And you will notice that the intransitive verb takes a noun only before it, but not after it like the transitive verb.

Remember that

(1.) **The Verb shews what the Noun is, or what the Noun does.**

(2.) **There are two kinds of Verbs—Transitive and Intransitive.**

EXERCISE.

Point out all the verbs first, and then tell whether they are transitive or intransitive.

The cow eats grass. The cow gives milk. The cow is very useful. The horse draws the cart. Some horses run fast. Swift horses come from Arabia. The dog watches our houses. The cat kills mice. The dog barks. The cat mews. The shepherd loves his dog. Dogs can swim. The water-dog often saves lives. It will bring people out of the water. The cat prowls about at night. The cat has sharp claws. Monkeys live on trees. Rabbits burrow in the ground. The beaver builds a house. Little boys and girls should read stories about animals.

Lesson V.—The Pronoun.

You were told that the noun and the verb were the two chief parts of speech. All the rest may be called the servants of these two. The PRONOUN serves the noun. It is often used instead of the noun. When I

say, *John met William and spoke to him, him* is a pronoun standing for the noun *William.* If there were no pronouns, we would be obliged to say, *John met William and spoke to William.* In the same way, *John said he left his book at home,* would be, *John said John left John's book at home,* for *he* and *his* are pronouns standing for the noun *John.*

There are three kinds of pronouns: the first is the **Personal Pronouns.** You must repeat them by heart:

I, thou, he, she, it.

They are called *personal* pronouns because they stand for persons.

I is called the *first* person, which means the person speaking, as in, *I fall.* The plural of *I* is *we.*

Thou is the *second* person, which means the person spoken to—as in, *Thou fallest.* The plural of *thou* is *you.*

He, she, and *it* are all *third* person, which means the person or thing spoken about—as in, *He falls, she falls, it falls.* The plural of *he, she,* and *it* is *they* for all of them.

You must notice that personal pronouns stand for things as well as for persons. We use *it* and *they* for things; *they* is also used for persons; and we say *it* when we are speaking of a very young child.

The second kind of pronouns is the **Possessive Pronouns:**

my, thy, his, her, its, our, your, their.

They not only stand for nouns, but also *possess* other

nouns—as, *John lost his book.* In this sentence, *his* is a possessive pronoun standing for *John's*, and possessing *book.* The possessive pronouns are always joined to nouns—as, *my book, our house, their garden.*

The third kind of pronouns is the **Relative Pronouns:**

who, which, what, that.

They not only stand for nouns, but *relate* or *connect* two sentences together—as, *John found the book which was lost.* Here, *which* is a relative pronoun standing for the noun *book*, and joining the two sentences, (1) *John found the book*, (2) *which was lost.*

The relative *who* is used only for persons—as, *I saw the boy who fell. Which* and *what* are used for things

The tree *which* was cut down.

The boy *who* fell.

(*Relative Pronouns.*)

and for the lower animals—as, *The tree which was cut down, The horse which ran away.* Again, *that* is used for either *who* or *which;* for we can say, *The boy that fell, The tree that was cut down, The horse that ran away.*

Remember that

(1.) **The Pronoun is useful in taking the place of the noun.**

(2.) **There are three kinds of Pronouns—Personal, Possessive, and Relative.**

EXERCISE.

Point out all the pronouns first, and then tell whether they are personal, possessive, or relative.

Do you know that we have five senses which are called seeing, hearing, smelling, tasting, and touching? We have two eyes. They are very useful to us. Young people should take care of their eyes, and they should use them well, if they wish to know the things that happen around them. John hurt his eye when he was playing: he said that a boy struck it with a ball. I found out the boy who struck it, and he is very sorry for what he did. I would not like any one to hurt me in the eye. You have two ears for hearing. The nose is for smelling; it has two nostrils. The tongue tastes for us, and the hands touch for us.

Lesson VI.—The Adjective.

The ADJECTIVE, like the pronoun, is useful to the noun. It is used to *point out* the noun or to *describe* it. When I say, *The house, the* is an adjective pointing out *house:* when I say, *Large house,* the word *large* is an adjective

Clever scholars.

High mountains.

(*Adjectives.*)

describing *house*—shewing what kind of house it is; but when I say, *The large house,* I first point it out and then describe it. The adjective is placed before the noun—as:

A good man, *Clever* scholars,
The beautiful picture, *High* mountains.

Adjectives that *point out* nouns are called **Distinguishing Adjectives**, such as *a, an, the, this, that, yon.* The first three of these are sometimes called *Articles. A* and *an* are the same kind of article, but *a* is used before nouns beginning with a consonant—as, *a house, a box, a tree;* while *an* is used before nouns beginning with a vowel—as, *an ox, an eagle.*

Adjectives that *describe* nouns by telling any of their *qualities* are called **Adjectives of Quality**, or **Descriptive Adjectives**—as, *tall man; sweet orange; hard wood; kind master.*

Adjectives that shew *how much* there is of a noun are called **Adjectives of Quantity**—as, *much sugar; little tea; no bread. Some, any, all, enough* are also adjectives of quantity; but you must be told that *enough* always comes after its noun—as, *Have you bread enough?*

Adjectives that tell *how many* there are of the noun are called **Numeral Adjectives**, or **Adjectives of Number.** Some tell the exact number, and are therefore called *Definite Numerals*—as, *one, two, three, twenty men, fifty sheep, a hundred pounds.* Others do not tell the exact number, and are therefore called *Indefinite Numerals*—as, *some men, several sheep, many pounds.* The other indefinite numerals are *all, no, none, any, few, enough.* Some of them you will notice can be both adjectives of quantity and adjectives of number—as, *Some boys, some fun; any boys, any fun; no boys, no fun.*

Remember that

(1.) **The Adjective points out or describes the noun.**
(2.) **There are four kinds of Adjectives—Adjectives of Distinction, Quality, Quantity, and Number.**

EXERCISE.

Point out all the adjectives first, telling at the same time the nouns they describe, and then distinguish the kind of the adjective.

Here is a large farm with many fields. Look at the ripe corn. What a beautiful yellow colour it has! We call that colour a golden yellow. The farmer is very busy. He has much work to look after. Five reapers are in one field, and more in another

Five reapers are in one field.

field. The hot sun burns their faces and gives them a brown look. How glad the reapers are to get into the cool shade, and take their noonday rest! The corn-fields will soon be bare, and the farm-yard full of big stacks.

Lesson VII.—The Adverb.

The ADVERB is of use to the verb, just as the adjective is of use to the noun. The adjective describes or qualifies the noun, and so the adverb *describes* and *qualifies*

the verb. When I say, *The boys behaved properly*, the word *properly* is an adverb qualifying the verb *behaved*—it describes the manner in which the boys behaved. In the same way we say, *The sun shines brightly*, *The horse runs swiftly*, *He came soon*, *They said their lesson well*, where the words *brightly*, *swiftly*, *soon*, and *well* are all adverbs qualifying verbs.

The horse runs swiftly. (*Adverb.*)

But the adverb is also used to qualify an *adjective* or another *adverb*—as, *The sky is very clear*, *She is wonderfully clever*. Here the word *very* is an adverb qualifying the adjective *clear*; and the word *wonderfully* is an adverb qualifying the adjective *clever*. But when I say, *It was very cleverly done*, the word *very* is an adverb qualifying another adverb, *cleverly*.

Adverbs, like other words, are divided into different classes or kinds. There are three kinds of adverbs—**Adverbs of Time, Place, and Manner.**

Adverbs of TIME show *when* the action is done—as, *John wrote lately*;

adverbs of PLACE show *where* the action is done—as, *John wrote here*;

adverbs of MANNER show *how* the action is done—as, *John wrote hastily*.

You should easily know—

adverbs of TIME—such as;

then,	now,	seldom,
when,	always,	often,
soon,	ever,	afterwards;

adverbs of PLACE—such as:

here,	yonder,	hence,	above,
there,	hither,	thence,	below,
where,	thither,	whence,	behind;

and adverbs of MANNER—such as:

how,	yes,	slowly,	easily,
well,	no,	properly,	gently,
ill,	perhaps,	wisely,	neatly;

and a great many other words ending in *ly*.

Remember that

(1.) **An Adverb qualifies a verb, an adjective, or another adverb.**

(2.) **There are three kinds of Adverbs—Adverbs of Time, Place, and Manner.**

EXERCISE.

Point out all the adverbs first, telling at the same time the words they qualify; then distinguish the kind.

This house is very neat. It has been well built and carefully finished. The situation is particularly good. From the windows you have a remarkably fine view. The sea can be distinctly seen,

and you may easily notice the ships as they sail majestically along. Here is the garden; there stands the orchard; and yonder lies the wood. Let us go thither. We must go immediately, as I must be home soon. Where is the road? How shall we cross the stream? Now, let us run quickly.

Lesson VIII.—The Preposition.

The PREPOSITION is of use both to the noun and the verb. It is *placed before* nouns, and it *joins* them to verbs or to other nouns—as, *John went to school.* In this sentence, *to* is a preposition placed before the noun ***school***, joining it to the verb ***went.*** In the sentence, ***He walked by the bank of the river, by*** is a preposition placed before the noun ***bank***, and joining or relating it to the verb *walked;* and *of* is a preposition placed before the noun ***river***, and relating it to the noun ***bank.*** The preposition may also relate a *noun* to an *adjective*—as, ***John is careful of his money***, where the preposition *of* relates the noun *money* to the adjective ***careful.*** Those little words you see placed before nouns are generally prepositions—such as:

John walked *by* the bank *of* the river.
(*Prepositions.*)

by,	at,	above,	before,
in,	for,	across,	over,
to,	from,	after,	through,
of,	into,	among,	under,
on,	with,	beyond,	within,
up,	about,	between,	without.

Remember that

The Preposition is placed before nouns or pronouns, and relates them to other words.

EXERCISE.

Point out all the prepositions first, telling at the same time the nouns or pronouns they are placed before; then find out the words they join or relate them to.

Do you ever walk by the side of the river? The banks on both sides are covered with wild-flowers. Some flowers grow in water, and it is sometimes difficult to get at them. Look at these birds flying across the stream. These are water-wagtails, so called from their long tails. Let us climb up the bank and look over this water-fall. The water falls down with a great noise into the pool below. See how the sun is shining upon the water.

Lesson IX.—The Conjunction.

The CONJUNCTION, like the preposition, is useful both to the noun and the verb. It *joins sentences* together—as:

Birds fly, *and* fishes swim.

Here, *and* is a conjunction joining the two sentences, *Birds fly, fishes swim.* Again:

Summer is warm, *but* winter is cold;
John was playing *while* James was preparing his lesson.

Here, the words *but* and *while* are conjunctions connecting the sentences together. You can easily tell the sentences joined by each of them; *but* joins the sentence before it with the sentence after it; and it is the same with *when.*

John was playing *while* James was preparing his lesson. (*Conjunction.*)

Sometimes conjunctions join only the *nouns* of the sentences — as, *John and James went to school.* Sometimes they join only the verbs of the sentences—as, *John*

reads and writes; James reads, writes, and counts. There are two kinds of conjunctions. I shall only name them just now; you will afterwards learn more about them. Remember these two long words for the two kinds of conjunctions—CO-ORDINATIVE and SUBORDINATIVE; and try to remember the following words as conjunctions:

and,	but,	as,	that,	although,
either,	yet,	because,	than,	however,
or,	when,	since,	hence,	nevertheless,
neither,	while,	if,	therefore,	accordingly,
nor,	for,	unless,	wherefore,	lest.

EXERCISE.

Point out all the conjunctions, and then tell the sentences they join together.

It is day when the sun rises. The sun brings light and heat. The sun shines and makes us happy. The earth would be very gloomy if the sun did not often shine upon it. Although we see the sun so often, we seldom think that it is so useful. How beautiful the sky looks before the sun sets! As the sun goes down, the sky begins to darken. The day is then finished and the night begins; but the night is again followed by the day.

Lesson X.—The Interjection.

INTERJECTIONS are words *thrown into* sentences to shew people's feelings. They have no connection with the words of the sentence in the way of grammar. They stand by themselves, and very often at the beginning of a sentence—as, *Oh! how I loved him; Alas! what shall I do?* In these sentences, *Oh!* and *Alas!* are interjections.

The other interjections are *ah! ho! oho! ay! lo! hollo! fie! hurrah! heigh-ho! Tally ho!* Sometimes other parts

Tally ho!
(*Interjection.*)

of speech are used as interjections—such as the noun *adieu;* the adjective *strange;* and the verbs *hush, hark, behold,* and some others.

GENERAL EXERCISE.

Distinguish the various parts of speech.

A crow, ready to die with thirst, flew with joy to a pitcher which he beheld at some distance. When he came to it, he found water indeed, but so near the bottom, that with all his stooping and straining, he could not reach it. He then endeavoured to overturn the pitcher, but his strength was not sufficient for this. 'Alas!' said he, 'what shall I do?' At last, observing some pebbles near the place, he dropped them one by one into the pitcher, and thus by degrees raised up the water to the brim, and satisfied his thirst.

II. THE DIFFERENT FORMS OF WORDS.

I. THE DIFFERENT FORMS OF NOUNS.

Lesson XI.—The Two Numbers.

Words have not always the same form. The noun *man* is sometimes *men*, sometimes *man's*, sometimes *men's*. The verb *walk* is sometimes *walks*, sometimes *walked*, sometimes *walking*. The adjective *soft* is sometimes *softer*, sometimes *softest*. Words change themselves in this manner according to the way in which they are joined or related to other words.

The noun changes itself to shew a difference in NUMBER. Nouns must either be in the **Singular Number** or the **Plural Number**. The noun is in the singular number when there is only *one* thing—as *chair;* and in the

Singular—*boy.*

Plural—*boys.*

plural when there are *more* than one—as *chairs*. In the same way, *boy* is singular, and *boys* plural; *fox* is singular, and *foxes* plural; *man* singular, and *men* plural.

The plural is generally formed by adding *s* or *es* to the singular—as:

singular, *book*; plural, *books*.
singular, *box*; plural, *boxes*.

You add *es* to *box*, and some other words, because you could not pronounce the plural distinctly if you only added *s*. You say *church, churches; brush, brushes; miss, misses.*

Some nouns form their plural in a different way. Nouns ending in *y*, with a consonant before the *y*, change the *y* into *ies*—as, singular *lady*, plural *ladies*. But when a vowel comes before the *y*, you only add *s*—as *day, days; boy, boys.*

Again, nouns ending in *f* or *fe* often change the *f* or *fe* into *ves*—as, *loaf, loaves; knife, knives.* Nouns in *ff*, and a number in *f*, only add *s*—such as *muffs, ruffs, stuffs, hoofs, roofs, proofs, reproofs, dwarfs, gulfs*; and in *fe, fifes, strifes*, with others.

Remember the following singulars and plurals:

Man,	men.	Ox,	oxen.	Foot,	feet.
Woman,	women.	Mouse,	mice.	Tooth,	teeth.
Child,	children.	Louse,	lice.	Goose,	geese.

Again, you will find that some nouns have no plural, and others have no singular. Proper nouns and abstract nouns have no plural—as, *Robert, Thames, goodness.* Some common nouns have no plural: you cannot say *milks, breads, silvers.* These are names of metals and things that are weighed and measured. You can easily understand that the names of things that are made double cannot be singular; such as *tongs, snuffers, scissors.* But

you will be surprised to learn that some nouns have **two** plurals; for

brother has *brothers* or *brethren;*
pea has *peas* or *pease;*
penny has *pennies* or *pence;*

and that some nouns are the same both in the singular and the plural—as, *sheep, deer, salmon, cod;* for you say *one* sheep, and you also say *twenty* sheep.

Remember that

Nouns have two Numbers—the Singular and the Plural.

EXERCISE.

Point out all the nouns first, then tell whether they are singular or plural, and how the plural is formed.

Look at the sheep. What a quiet creature it is, yet it is one of the most useful animals. You would not think it could be of so much value to man. Do you see the thick covering of wool on its back? How many useful things are made of wool, that are worn by little boys and girls, and by ladies and gentlemen! We have cloth for jackets, and coats, and frocks—gloves, and stockings, and scarfs, and ruffs. Then in the house we have the luxury of carpets, and blankets, and other stuffs. Is there anything that keeps out cold, and keeps in health better than flannel? The wool, when it is on the sheep's back, is called a fleece. In summer it is cut off with shears, which are very large scissors. The sheep also gives us food. Its flesh is called mutton. The flesh of the ox or cow is called beef. The young sheep is called a lamb, and the young cow is called a calf. Sheep are fed both in England and Scotland.

Sheep.

Lesson XII.—The Four Genders.

There are two *sexes*—the male and the female. All male animals belong to the male sex; all female animals belong to the female sex. In the same way there are in grammar two GENDERS — the **Masculine** and the **Feminine.** All names of *males* are of the masculine gender—as *man, boy, ram;* and all names of *females* are of the feminine gender—as, *woman, girl, ewe.*

Girl and boy.
(*Feminine—Masculine.*)

Names of things without life are *neither* masculine nor feminine, and are therefore said to be of **Neuter** gender, for the word *neuter* means neither. *Iron, stone, tree, table* are neuter.

Then there are some nouns that are *either* masculine or feminine—such as *cousin, friend, bird, sheep, horse. Cousin* may be either cousin *John* or cousin *Mary.* All such nouns are said to be of **Common Gender.**

Table.
(*Neuter.*)

Nouns generally have the feminine different from the masculine. You will find that a great many feminine nouns are formed from the masculine, and that they end in *ess.* For instance:

Masculine.	Feminine.	Masculine.	Feminine.
lion,	*lioness.*	*master,*	*mistress.*
tiger,	*tigress.*	*governor,*	*governess.*
prince,	*princess.*	*lad,*	*lass.*

But there are other nouns that have the feminine entirely different from the masculine. Try to remember the following:

Masculine.	Feminine.	Masculine.	Feminine.
boy,	*girl.*	*husband,*	*wife.*
brother,	*sister.*	*king,*	*queen.*
bull,	*cow.*	*lord,*	*lady.*
cock,	*hen.*	*man,*	*woman.*
colt,	*filly.*	*nephew,*	*niece.*
drake,	*duck.*	*ram,*	*ewe.*
father,	*mother.*	*sir,*	*madam.*
gander,	*goose.*	*son,*	*daughter.*
gentleman,	*lady.*	*uncle,*	*aunt.*

Sometimes the words *he* and *she*, *male* and *female*, are put before nouns to shew the gender; as, *he-goat, she-goat; he-bear, she-bear; male child, female child; male bird, female bird.*

Remember that

There are four genders—Masculine, Feminine, Neuter, and Common.

EXERCISE.

Point out the nouns and tell the gender.

The king went out to hunt. He is a great hunter. One day he shot a lioness, which was shewn to the queen and her ladies. The king's son and his nephew are companions and are also great hunters. They hunt the bear and the tiger. Some gentlemen are fond of shooting birds. Wild animals are shot for sport. The cow, the sheep, the dog, geese, ducks, and hens are tame animals. Some wild beasts have very pretty skins, and some wild birds have very pretty feathers. John's uncle and his cousin brought some beautiful skins from Africa.

Lesson XIII.—The Three Cases.

You have now seen that nouns have two *numbers* and four *genders*. I am now to tell you that they have also three CASES. When a noun does anything, it is said to be in the **Nominative Case**—as, *John reads, Birds sing, The sky darkens.* The nouns *John, birds,* and *sky* are all in the nominative case, because they do something.

When something is done to the noun, it is said to be in the **Objective Case**—as, *John struck the nail.* The noun *nail* is in the objective case, because something is done to it—because it is the end of the action of the verb *struck.* You must observe that the nominative is placed before the verb, and the objective after it. I shall give you other two sentences with the nominative and objective cases: *The wind shakes the trees; The master shews great kindness.* In the first sentence, *wind* is the nominative, and *trees* the objective; in the second sentence, *master* is the nominative, and *kindness* the objective.

But the noun that follows a preposition is also in the objective case. In the sentence we had before, *John goes to school,* the noun *school* is in the *objective* case, because it follows the preposition *to.* The noun that follows the verb is said to be *governed* by the verb, and the noun that follows the preposition is said to be *governed* by the preposition. No change is made upon the noun for the nominative and objective cases—these two cases are therefore always alike.

When the noun possesses something, it is said to be in the **Possessive Case**—as, *John's book;* the noun *John's*

is in the possessive case, because it possesses *book*. You will notice that a change is here made upon the noun to form the possessive. A mark called an apostrophe (') and an *s* are added to it to form the possessive singular—as, *John's book, the girl's slate, the bookseller's shop;* instead of John *his* book, the girl *her* slate, the bookseller *his* shop. In forming the possessive plural, you add only an apostrophe when the plural ends in *s*—as, *The boys' foot-ball, the girls' play-ground.* When the plural does not end in *s*, you add *'s* as you do for the singular—as, *men's hats.*

Remember that there are three cases—

The Nominative, the Possessive, and the Objective.

EXERCISE.

Point out all the nouns, and distinguish the three cases.

Men live in houses. Some gentlemen's houses are very large. John's papa built a fine house. The walls of houses are built of stone. The mason builds the walls. The mason hews the stones. The mason uses a chisel. The masons' work is hard. The carpenter makes the roof and the floors. The carpenter also makes the doors and the window-frames. The carpenter uses wood. Did you ever see the carpenter's plane? Carpenters' work is easier than masons' work (is). The carpenter hammers nails into the floor. You may have seen the carpenter's hammer. The plasterer comes after the carpenter. The slater covers the roof with slates. The slater's work is dangerous.

II. THE DIFFERENT FORMS OF VERBS.

Lesson XIV.—The Indicative Mood.

The verb, as well as the noun, changes its form. The verb, like the noun, has a singular and a plural number; and, like the pronoun, it has three persons—a first person, a second person, and a third person. The verb has also *three tenses.* The word *tense* means *time*, and there are only three times for things being done. Things must be done at *present time*, *past time*, or *future time*. *I walk* is the *present tense*, because the action is done at *present time; I walked* is the *past tense*, because the action was done at *past time; I shall walk* is the *future tense*, because the action is to be done at *future time.*

He walks.
(*Present Tense.*)

But each of these three tenses has another form called the *perfect*, shewing that the action of the present tense, or the past tense, or the future tense is just finished. When I say, *I have walked*, I mean that my walk is just finished at the present time, and *I have walked* is therefore called the *Present Perfect Tense.* When I say, *I had walked*, I mean that my walk was just finished at a past time; and *I had walked* is therefore called the *Past Perfect Tense.* When I say, *I shall have walked*, I mean that my walk will just be finished at a future time; and *I shall have walked* is therefore called the *Future Perfect Tense.* Now I shall write down these six tenses with their two numbers and their three persons, and you must try to learn them by heart.

Indicative Mood.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.	Plural.
1*st Person*, I walk.	1*st Person*, We walk.
2*d* „ Thou walkest.	2*d* „ You walk.
3*d* „ He walks.	3*d* „ They walk.

PAST TENSE.

1. I walked.	1. We walked.
2. Thou walkedst.	2. You walked.
3. He walked.	3. They walked.

FUTURE TENSE.

1. I shall walk.	1. We shall walk.
2. Thou wilt walk.	2. You will walk.
3. He will walk.	3. They will walk.

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.

1. I have walked.	1. We have walked.
2. Thou hast walked.	2. You have walked.
3. He has walked.	3. They have walked.

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

1. I had walked.	1. We had walked.
2. Thou hadst walked.	2. You had walked.
3. He had walked.	3. They had walked.

FUTURE PERFECT TENSE.

1. I shall have walked.	1. We shall have walked.
2. Thou wilt have walked.	2. You will have walked.
3. He will have walked.	3. They will have walked.

These six tenses make up what is called the INDICATIVE MOOD of the verb. The word *mood* means *manner*, and the mood of a verb shews the manner in which it tells about an action. The verb has several moods, and the *Indicative is* the first.

Remember that

The Indicative Mood simply says or declares that an action is done, or was done, or will be done.

EXERCISE.

Point out the verbs of the indicative mood, and tell the person, number, and tense.

I shall write. You will read. John has finished his lesson. We had just dined when William called. When I told him to go away, he refused. They sent a message. We have not received it. I hope it will come. The post arrives at six. They deliver the letters at eight. I see the postman. He has brought a letter. I shall have read it before John comes home. He had said that he wished me to read it. Our friends will join us to-morrow.

Lesson XV.—The Subjunctive Mood.

The next mood I am to tell you about is the SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD. It shews that the action of one verb is dependent upon that of another. It is joined to another verb under a condition, and always denotes uncertainty. When I say, *If John come, his cousins will get a holiday*, the first verb, *come*, is in the Subjunctive Mood, because it denotes *uncertainty;* and it is dependent on the second verb, *will get*, because it is joined to it under a condition. The Subjunctive Mood has always a conjunction before it, generally the conjunction *if;* sometimes the conjunction *unless, except, though, lest*, or *whether*. I shall write down the tenses of the Subjunctive Mood, and you will see that they are almost the same as the tenses of the Indicative Mood. Be sure to notice that there is no change upon the *second* and *third* persons, as in the Indicative Mood.

Subjunctive Mood.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.	Plural.
1. If I walk.	1. If we walk.
2. If thou walk.	2. If you walk.
3. If he walk.	3. If they walk.

PAST TENSE.

1. If I walked.	1. If we walked.
2. If thou walked.	2. If you walked.
3. If he walked.	3. If they walked.

FUTURE TENSE.

1. If I should walk.	1. If we should walk.
2. If thou should walk.	2. If you should walk.
3. If he should walk.	3. If they should walk.

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.

1. If I have walked.	1. If we have walked.
2. If thou have walked.	2. If you have walked.
3. If he have walked.	3. If they have walked.

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

1. If I had walked.	1. If we had walked.
2. If thou had walked.	2. If you had walked.
3. If he had walked.	3. If they had walked.

FUTURE PERFECT TENSE.

1. If I should have walked.	1. If we should have walked.
2. If thou should have walked.	2. If you should have walked.
3. If he should have walked.	3. If they should have walked.

EXERCISE.

Point out person, number, and tense.

If we go. Lest he should come. Though he had called. Unless they confess. Except he do it. If he should have spoken. If he gave the order. Whether he took the book. If they have promised. Lest you fall. Unless I had gone. Except he performed the task. Even though he should deny the thing.

Lesson XVI.—The Potential Mood.

The next mood is the POTENTIAL MOOD. It shews that a person has *liberty* or *power* to do an action—as, *I may walk, I can walk.* Sometimes it shews that there is a *necessity* for a person doing a thing—as, *John must learn his lesson.* Sometimes, too, it shews *duty* or *obligation*—as, *Children should obey their parents.* You must try to learn the tenses of the Potential Mood also.

Potential Mood.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I may or can walk.	1. We may or can walk.
2. Thou mayst or canst walk.	2. You may or can walk.
3. He may or can walk.	3. They may or can walk.

PAST AND FUTURE TENSE.

1. I might, could, would, or should walk.	1. We might, could, would, or should walk.
2. Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst, or shouldst walk.	2. You might, could, would, or should walk.
3. He might, could, would, or should walk.	3. They might, could, would, or should walk.

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.

1. I may or can have walked.	1. We may or can have walked.
2. Thou mayst or canst have walked.	2. You may or can have walked.
3. He may or can have walked.	3. They may or can have walked.

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

1. I might, could, would, or should have walked.	1. We might, could, would, or should have walked.
2. Thou mightst, &c. have walked.	2. You might, &c. have walked.
3. He might, &c. have walked.	3. They might, &c. have walked.

EXERCISE.

Point out person, number, and tense.

I may go. You can go. We might have come. They should come. We would try. I could have performed. They could have promised. I may have said. Thou mightst know. He can have prepared. You should have known. He might consider. We may think. They would have appeared.

Lesson XVII.—The Imperative Mood.

We come now to the IMPERATIVE MOOD. It *commands* or orders a thing to be done. When I say to the class, *sit*, or *stand*, or *shut* your books, I give an order to the class, and the verbs *sit*, *stand*, *shut* are therefore in the Imperative Mood.

'*Shut* your books.'
(*Imperative Mood.*)

The Imperative Mood has only two tenses—the Present and the Future; and it has only one person in each tense—the Second. You cannot command yourself, therefore there is no *first* person; and you cannot command a person you are not speaking to, therefore there is no *third* person.

Imperative Mood.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.	Plural.
2. Walk, or walk thou.	2. Walk, or walk ye or you.

FUTURE TENSE.

2. Thou shalt walk.	2. You shall walk.

EXERCISE.

Point out the verbs in the imperative mood, and tell whether the number is singular or plural, and the tense present or future.

James, go and tell John to bring the ponies. Now, make yourselves ready, boys. See, there he comes. Mount, Willie, and gallop round the park. James, follow me. Take care of the ditch; leap it, if you can. Willie has gone along the road; let us make up to him. We must now return home, boys; remember the lessons. Come into the house and read. Repeat the Scripture texts: 'Thou shalt love the Lord thy God;' 'Thou shalt love thy neighbour as thyself.'

Lesson XVIII.—The Infinitive and the Participle.

Now, there are two parts of the verb quite different from the rest: they do not tell what the noun *is*, or what the noun *does*, in the same way as the moods; they never affirm anything of the noun. The first is the INFINITIVE, often called the Infinitive Mood; but it is not properly a mood. The Infinitive is the name of the verb, or the *noun-verb*, and it has generally the preposition *to* before it as a sign by which you may know it—as, *to walk, to run, to love, to obey, to speak, to write.* All these are the names or the Infinitives of the verbs. The sign *to* is sometimes left out, and then the Infinitive is not so easily known.

The PARTICIPLE denotes action, but does not affirm; it qualifies like an adjective, and is therefore the *adjective-verb.* The Participle has also a sign by which it may be known: it always ends in *ing*—as *walking, running,*

loving, *obeying*, *speaking*, *writing*. Both the Infinitive and the Participle have a *Perfect* form, which I shall write down.

INFINITIVE.		PARTICIPLE.	
Present.	To walk.	*Present.*	Walking.
Pres. Perfect.	To have walked.	*Pres. Perfect.*	Having walked.

EXERCISE.

Point out the infinitives and participles.

John likes to go to school. James is said to have gone last week. I saw John carrying his books to school. Having crossed the bridge, he turned up the road to the left. I love to see boys playing at their games. James seems to have hurt himself at cricket. He was obliged to come home, after having hurt himself. He must try to take more care of himself when running to catch the ball.

Lesson XIX.—The Verb To Be.

I told you that the verb *to be* was the only verb that did not signify doing—that did not denote action. The verb *to be*, by itself, simply expresses being; but it has generally other words joined to it, such as good, bad, small, big, &c. and it then shews the state or condition in which the noun is. As it is a verb that is very often used, and is different in the formation of some of its tenses and moods from other verbs, I shall write it all out for you.

THE VERB *TO BE.*

Indicative Mood.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I am.	1. We are.
2. Thou art.	2. You are.
3. He is.	3. They are.

PAST TENSE.

1. I was.	1. We were.
2. Thou wast.	2. You were.
3. He was.	3. They were.

FUTURE TENSE.

1. I shall be.	1. We shall be.
2. Thou wilt be.	2. You will be.
3. He will be.	3. They will be.

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.

1. I have been.	1. We have been.
2. Thou hast been.	2. You have been.
3. He has been.	3. They have been.

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

1. I had been.	1. We had been.
2. Thou hadst been.	2. You had been.
3. He had been.	3. They had been.

FUTURE PERFECT TENSE.

1. I shall have been.	1. We shall have been.
2. Thou wilt have been.	2. You will have been.
3. He will have been.	3. They will have been.

Subjunctive Mood.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.	Plural.
1. If I be.	1. If we be.
2. If thou be.	2. If you be.
3. If he be.	3. If they be.

PAST TENSE.

1. If I were.	1. If we were.
2. If thou wert.	2. If you were.
3. If he were.	3. If they were.

FUTURE TENSE.

1. If I should be.	1. If we should be.
2. If thou should be.	2. If you should be.
3. If he should be.	3. If they should be.

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.

1. If I have been.	1. If we have been.
2. If thou have been.	2. If you have been.
3. If he have been.	3. If they have been.

PAST PERFECT.

1. If I had been.	1. If we had been.
2. If thou had been.	2. If you had been.
3. If he had been.	3. If they had been.

FUTURE PERFECT.

1. If I should have been.	1. If we should have been.
2. If thou should have been.	2. If you should have been.
3. If he should have been.	3. If they should have been.

Potential Mood.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I may or can be.	1. We may or can be.
2. Thou mayst or canst be.	2. You may or can be.
3. He may or can be.	3. They may or can be.

PAST OR FUTURE TENSE.

1. I might, could, would, or should be.	1. We might, could, would, or should be.
2. Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst, or shouldst be.	2. You might, could, would, or should be.
3. He might, could, would, or should be.	3. They might, could, would, or should be.

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.

1. I may or can have been.	1. We may or can have been.
2. Thou mayst or canst have been.	2. You may or can have been.
3. He may or can have been.	3. They may or can have been.

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

1. I might, &c. have been.	1. We might, &c. have been.
2. Thou mightst, &c. have been.	2. You might, &c. have been.
3. He might, &c. have been.	3. They might, &c. have been.

Imperative Mood.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.	Plural.
2. Be, or be thou.	2. Be, or be you.

FUTURE TENSE.

2. Thou shalt be.	2. You shall be.

Infinitive.		Participle.	
Present.	To be.	*Present.*	Being.
Pres. Perfect.	To have been.	*Pres. Perfect.*	Having been.

There are many other things to be learned about verbs, but we shall leave them till you are able to learn the larger Grammar.

EXERCISE.

Point out person, number, tense, and mood of the verb To Be.

I am rich. He is poor. They have been idle. We shall be diligent. Be quiet, boys. I may be there. You might have been there. They had been at the place. Thou shalt not be like them. If he had been careful. If we were sure of it. Thou art the man. He has been fortunate. If I be successful. You are kind. He might be a good scholar. He should be clever. We may have been wrong in our calculations.

III. THE DIFFERENT FORMS OF THE PRONOUN.

Lesson XX.—Person, Number, and Case.

The Personal Pronouns have *three persons*, *two numbers*, and *three cases*, all of which you must learn by heart.

FIRST PERSON.			SECOND PERSON.		
	Sing.	Plur.		Sing.	Plur.
Nom.	I,	We.	*Nom.*	Thou,	You.
Poss.	Mine,	Ours.	*Poss.*	Thine,	Yours.
Obj.	Me,	Us.	*Obj.*	Thee,	You.

THIRD PERSON.

	Mas.	Fem.	Neut.	Common Plural.
Nom.	He,	She,	It.	They.
Poss.	His,	Hers,	Its.	Theirs.
Obj.	Him,	Her,	It.	Them.

The Possessive Pronouns do not change at all. You remember that they are always followed by the nouns they possess. The Relatives *what* and *that* are also never changed; but *who* and *which* have an objective and a possessive case.

Singular and Plural.		Singular and Plural.	
Nom.	Who.	*Nom.*	Which.
Poss.	Whose.	*Poss.*	Whose.
Obj.	Whom.	*Obj.*	Which.

EXERCISE.

Tell the person, number, and case of the pronouns, distinguishing also the possessive from the personal.

John has lost his book. Have you got yours? He cannot find his. I am angry at him for losing the book which I gave him. He is a careless boy. We must seek for it. Its boards are black. Who will find it? Whose book is this? Where is my book? Whom did I give it to? Bring it to me. Let them shew their books. They must bring theirs and shew them to us. Has John got his yet? To whom did he give it? What did he do with it? Did he shew it to you?

IV. THE DIFFERENT FORMS OF THE ADJECTIVE AND ADVERB.

Lesson XXI.—The Degrees of Comparison.

The ADJECTIVE changes its form to shew a difference in the quality of the noun. The first degree of quality that the adjective shews is called the **Positive Degree**—as, *a hard ball, a pretty picture.* The adjectives *hard* and *pretty* are in the positive degree. The positive, you must observe, is the adjective in its usual form. But when we want to shew a greater degree of quality than the positive, we add *er* to the positive, and say *harder, prettier*—as, *a harder ball, a prettier picture.* This is called the **Comparative Degree.** And when we want to shew the greatest degree of quality, we add *est* to the positive, and say *hardest, prettiest*—as, *the hardest ball, the prettiest picture.* This is called the **Superlative Degree.** In the same way we say:

Soft	softer	softest.
Dark	darker	darkest.
Hot	hotter	hottest.
Sweet	sweeter	sweetest.
Lovely	lovelier	loveliest.

When the adjective, however, is a word of more than two syllables, as *beautiful*, we do not add *er* and *est* for the comparative and superlative; but we put the adverbs *more* and *most* before the positive—as, positive, *beautiful;* comparative, *more beautiful;* superlative, *most beautiful.*

Dark, darker, darkest.
(*Positive, Comparative, Superlative.*)

Adjectives of distinction cannot be compared; but two of them have a plural—*this* has *these* for its plural, and *that* has *those.* The definite numeral adjectives cannot be compared; you cannot compare *ten* or *twenty.* Even some adjectives of quality cannot be compared, because you cannot make their meaning greater or less—such as, *true, full.* If a thing is *true,* it cannot be *truer;* if a thing is *full,* it cannot be *fuller.* It is the same with such adjectives as *just, perfect, round, extreme, square, black, white, wooden,* and some others.

Small, smaller, smallest.
(*Positive, Comparative, Superlative.*)

You must now be told that the comparative is used only when two things are to be compared—as, *John is taller than his brother; John is the taller of the two brothers;* and that the superlative is used when more than two things are to be

compared—as, *John is the tallest of the three brothers; John is the tallest of all the brothers.*

Learn by heart the following comparatives and superlatives, that are different from others:

POSITIVE.	COMPARATIVE.	SUPERLATIVE.
Bad	worse	worst.
Far	farther	farthest.
Fore	former	foremost or first.
Good	better	best.
Late	later or latter	latest or last.
Little	less	least.
Much	more	most.
Many	more	most.
Near	nearer	nearest or next.
Old	older or elder	oldest or eldest.

Some ADVERBS have a comparative and superlative degree—as:

POSITIVE.	COMPARATIVE.	SUPERLATIVE.
Well	better	best.
Soon	sooner	soonest.
Quietly	more quietly	most quietly.
Willingly	more willingly	most willingly.

The adjectives, *much*, *far*, and *little*, are also adverbs.

EXERCISE.

Point out the adjectives and adverbs, and the degrees of comparison.

This day is colder than yesterday. I like warm weather. Summer is the hottest of the four seasons. Winter is not so pleasant as summer. The longest day is in summer, and the shortest in winter. Some people think flowers more beautiful in spring than in summer. Nothing can be lovelier than the garden in summer. Some of the flowers are most brilliant in colour. Some of them turn their leaves to the bright sun, and follow it in the most wonderful manner. How bare the garden is in winter! The flowers are no longer to be seen. The trees are completely stripped of their leaves. We must wait most patiently for the return of spring.

PART III.—ON SENTENCES.

Lesson XXII.—The Simple Sentence.

When you wish to tell what you are thinking about, you do so in words, and the words you make use of form a sentence. A sentence is therefore the expression of any thought that comes into your mind. Now there are two parts of speech that must be in every sentence—the Nominative and the Verb. There can be no sentence without them.

The Nominative is called the **Subject** of the Sentence, because it is the name of the thing spoken about; and the verb is called the **Predicate** of the Sentence, because it tells or affirms something about the noun. When I say, *Dogs bark*, the two words form a sentence, because they are the expression of a thought. The Nominative *dogs* is the subject of the sentence, because it is the name of the thing spoken about; and the Verb *bark* is the predicate of the sentence, because it tells or affirms something about the subject *dogs*. In the same way, *men think*, *boys play*, *birds fly*, *fishes swim*, are all sentences consisting of two parts—the subject and the predicate.

But when I say, *Some dogs bark loudly*, I have still the same sentence, with the same subject and predicate, with this difference, that the subject is enlarged by the adjective *some*, and the predicate is enlarged by the adverb *loudly*. And when I say, *Some dogs of my*

brother's bark loudly at people, I enlarge the subject and predicate still further by adding a prepositional phrase to each of them.

You may remember, I told you that the pronoun and adjective were of use to the noun, and the adverb to the verb; and that the preposition was of use to both. With these words I can enlarge the subject and predicate as much as I like; for I can say, *Some nasty ugly dogs at the house of my brother bark very loudly at all the people passing by.* I shall write down all these sentences, with the subject on one side and the predicate on the other, so that you may see that, however enlarged they may be, they still consist only of two parts.

SUBJECT.	PREDICATE.
Dogs	bark.
Some dogs	bark loudly.
Some dogs of my brother's	bark loudly at people.
Some nasty ugly dogs at the house of my brother	bark very loudly at all the people passing by.

You will perhaps remember the two kinds of verbs—transitive and intransitive. You will perhaps also remember that the transitive verb takes an objective case after it, but that the intransitive verb does not. The verb *barks* is an intransitive verb, and therefore it has no objective after it: so that in the examples of the predicate which have been given there is no objective case. But when a transitive verb is used as the predicate, the predicate must then contain an objective case, or as it is called, an **Object**—as, *Dogs eat flesh:* here *flesh* is the object; and the object can be enlarged as well as the subject—as, *Dogs eat raw flesh; Dogs eat the raw flesh of all animals.*

Now all sentences like these that contain only one subject and one predicate, are called SIMPLE SENTENCES. It does not matter how large or how small the subject or predicate may be; if a sentence consists of only one of each, it is a *Simple Sentence.*

Remember the SIMPLE SENTENCE and its two parts.

EXERCISE.

Point out the subject and predicate in the following simple sentences, and then name all the objects.

Birds sing. Some birds sing sweetly. Birds of prey devour other birds. The eagle is a bird of prey. It is a noble bird. The eye of the eagle is wonderfully formed. The eagle's nest is called

An eagle having once carried off a child from a field, flew away with it to its eyrie.

an eyrie. Eagles build their nests on high rocks. An eagle having once carried off a child from a field, flew away with it to its eyrie. Most birds of prey fly very swiftly. A number of birds fly very little. The parrot is a climbing bird. All of you have seen the parrot. You may perhaps have heard it speak. It often cries to people passing by. The birds found in the warm countries of our earth have very beautiful plumage. The smallest of all birds is the humming-bird. The little wren is the smallest of British birds. Did you ever see an ostrich with its long neck? It is the largest of all birds. Little boys at school should be told a great many things about birds and other animals.

Lesson XXIII.—The Compound Sentence.

You have seen that a simple sentence is the expression of a simple thought, and that it consists of one subject and one predicate. But two or more simple sentences may be joined together by a conjunction. When I say, *John reads and James writes*, there are two simple sentences joined together by the conjunction *and*: and when I say, *John reads, James writes, and William counts*, there are three simple sentences joined together by the conjunction *and*. In the same way we have simple sentences joined together by other conjunctions—as, *John went to school, but William stayed at home; John does not read, neither does he write; John must go, or I must go; John was late, therefore he was punished.*

In all these examples the simple sentences are so joined together that they are all equal to one another in importance: no one is dependent on another. Now, when simple sentences are joined together in this way, they form what is called a COMPOUND SENTENCE; and because the simple sentences of a compound sentence are all equal—all of the same rank or order—they are said to be CO-ORDINATE, while the conjunctions that connect them are called CO-ORDINATIVE.

The principal of the *Co-ordinative* conjunctions are: *and, either, or, neither, nor, but, yet, however, therefore, wherefore, hence, whence.*

But you must be reminded that the co-ordinative conjunctions sometimes connect only the *subjects* of a compound sentence, and sometimes only the predicates.

When I say, *John and James went off to school*, the conjunction *and* connects only the subjects *John* and *James;* but still it connects two simple sentences, for it is only a shorter way of saying, *John went off to school, and James went off to school.* In the same way, *John reads, writes, and counts,* is only a shorter way of saying, *John reads, John writes, and John counts.*

Remember that

A Compound Sentence is made up of two or more simple sentences of the same rank or order.

EXERCISE.

Separate the following compound sentences into simple sentences, and tell the number in each.

The head, the trunk, and the limbs are parts of the body. The face and the skull belong to the head. The face has two eyes, a nose, two cheeks, two lips, and a chin. You see with your eyes, but you cannot see with your nose. The eyes are guarded by eyelids and eyelashes. You can see neither with your eyelids nor with your eyelashes. The eyes are very delicate organs; therefore they are well protected. The trunk contains the chest, the ribs, and the backbone. The limbs are either upper limbs or lower limbs. The hands are upper limbs, but the feet are lower limbs. The hands are small, yet they are very useful. The fingers are made with joints, else they would be of little use. There are thirteen bones in each hand, and fourteen in the five fingers. The backbone is just a pillar of little bones and joints; hence you are able to bend it easily. In all these things we see the wisdom, the skill, and the goodness of God.

Lesson XXIV.—The Complex Sentence.

You have seen that two or more simple sentences may be so joined together that they are all equal—all of the same rank or order. I am now to shew you that two or more simple sentences may be so joined together that some of them are dependent upon others—that they are of no use without the others.

When I say, *John was late, because he trifled his time,* there are two simple sentences joined by the conjunction *because;* but they are so joined together that the *second* is dependent on the *first.* The first sentence contains the *principal* statement—*John was late:* it makes sense when standing by itself; it is therefore called the **Principal Sentence.** The second sentence shews why John was late—*because he trifled his time:* it is therefore dependent on the principal sentence; it does not make sense without it; it is of no use without it; and because it is thus of a lower rank or order, it is called a **Subordinate Sentence,** and the conjunction that connects it with the principal sentence is called a SUBORDINATIVE CONJUNCTION.

The subordinate sentence may come before the principal —as, *When the bell rings, the scholars enter the school.* In this example the principal statement is last—*the scholars enter the school;* and the first is the subordinate, because it shews when the scholars enter the school: the subordinative conjunction joining the two sentences together is *when.*

The chief subordinative conjunctions besides *when* are *where, while, before, after, for, as, because, since, that, if, unless, though, although, than, lest.*

But I must give you an example of two or three subordinate sentences all dependent upon one or two principal

When the bell rings, the scholars enter the school.

sentences. In the sentence, *Boys will be happy, if they attend to the instructions that are given them by their parents, who love them so much*—the *first* sentence is the *principal*, and the *three* that follow are all *subordinate* sentences dependent upon it. When simple sentences are joined together in this way, they form what is called a COMPLEX SENTENCE.

Remember that

A Complex Sentence consists of two or more simple sentences so joined together that some of them are dependent upon others.

EXERCISE.

Point out the principal and subordinate sentences in the following complex sentences.

There was once a traveller who had to cross a wide plain, where

he saw a lion in the distance. When the lion saw him, it began slowly to follow him. When the traveller walked fast, the lion walked fast; when the traveller stopped, the lion stopped. The man was sure that the lion meant to follow him until dark, and then spring upon him. He was not able to run away from the lion, for the lion could run faster than he could run: so he thought of a plan to cheat him. He came to a high cliff, below which there was a deep hollow. Creeping down, he hid behind a rock, where the lion could not see him. He then took a stick which he found among the rocks, and put his coat and hat on it, so that they looked like a man. He then held the stick above the rock, behind which he was hid. When the lion came up and saw the coat and hat, he made a great spring at them. He bounded right over the place where the man lay, and falling down among the rocks below, he was at once killed.

QUESTIONS ON THE LESSONS.

LESSONS I–II.

How many letters are there in the alphabet?
How are the letters of the alphabet divided?
Name the vowels and the consonants.
What letters are always printed in capitals?
In what cases must capital letters always be used?
What is a syllable, a monosyllable, a dissyllable, a trisyllable, and a polysyllable?

LESSON III.

Name the parts of speech.
What are the most useful kinds of words?
What is a noun? Give examples.
Name the different kinds of nouns.
What are proper, common, and abstract nouns?

LESSON IV.

What does the verb shew?
Name the different kinds of verbs.
What is the difference between a transitive and an intransitive verb?

LESSON V.

What is the use of the pronoun?
Name the kinds of pronouns.
Why are the different kinds of pronouns so called?
Name the personal pronouns, the possessive pronouns, and the relative pronouns.

LESSON VI.

What is the use of the adjective?
Mention examples of adjectives.
Name the different kinds of adjectives, and give examples *of each.*

LESSONS VII.—VIII.

What is the use of the adverb?
What parts of speech do adverbs qualify?
Name the different kinds of adverbs, and give examples of each.
State what you know respecting the preposition.
Name a few prepositions.

LESSONS IX.—X.

What is the use of the conjunction?
Name a few conjunctions.
Name the different kinds of conjunctions.
What are interjections?
Mention a few of them.

LESSON XI.

What is the difference between the two numbers?
Give examples of the different numbers.
Name the different ways in which the plural of nouns is formed, giving examples.
Give the plural of *man*, *child*, *ox*, *mouse*, *tooth*, *goose*.
Mention nouns that have no plural.
Mention nouns that have no singular.
Mention nouns that have two plurals.
Mention nouns that are the same both in the singular and plural.

LESSON XII.

Mention the different genders, and how they are used.
Name the feminine of the following: *lion*, *boy*, *goat*, *tiger*, *bear*, *bull*, *master*, *gentleman*, *lad*, &c.

LESSON XIII.

Name the different cases.
When is a noun in the nominative case?
When is a noun in the objective case?
What cases are always alike?
When is a noun in the possessive case?
How are the possessive singular and possessive plural formed?

LESSONS XIV.–XVII.

How many numbers and persons has the verb?
What is the meaning of tense?
Name the tenses of the verb.
What is the meaning of mood?
What does the mood of a verb shew?
Name the different moods of the verb.
State what you know respecting the different moods of the verb.

LESSONS XVIII.–XIX.

State what you know of the infinitive and the participle of the verb.
What does the verb *To be* express or shew?

LESSON XX.

Repeat the cases, singular and plural, of the personal pronouns.
Repeat the cases of *who* and *which*.

LESSON XXI.

Name the degrees of comparison.
What does the comparative shew, and how is it formed?
What does the superlative shew, and how is it formed?
Give examples of the different degrees of comparison.
What kinds of adjectives cannot be compared?
When is the comparative used, and when the superlative?
Compare the following adjectives: *bad, far*, &c.
Compare the following adverbs: *well, soon*, &c.

LESSONS XXII.–XXIV.

What is a sentence?
Name the different parts of a sentence, and tell why they are so called.
Name the different kinds of a sentence.
What is a simple sentence? a compound sentence? a complex sentence?
What is a principal sentence? a subordinate sentence?
What are co-ordinate sentences?

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Attention is particularly requested to the marked words at foot of th

Marrow, mar'rō, *n.*, *the soft, fatty* matter in the cavities of the bones; the pith of certain plants; the essence, or best part.—*adj.* **mar'rowy.** [A.S. *mearh*, Ice. *mergr*, Dan. *marg*, Ger. *mark*; A.S. *mearu*, Dutch, *murw*, soft, Ice. *mōr*, fat.]

marrow-bone, mar'rō-bōn, *n.*, *a bone containing marrow.*

marrowish, mar'rō-ish, *adj.*, *of the nature of* or *resembling marrow.*

Marry, mar'ri, *v.t.* lit. *to provide with a male*; to take for husband or wife; to unite in matrimony.—*v.i.* to enter into the married state; to take a husband or a wife:—*pr.p.* mar'rying; *pa.p.* mar'ried. [Fr. *marier*, L. *marito—maritus*, a husband—*mas, maris*, a male.]

marriage, mar'rij, *n.*, *the act of marrying* or *state of being married*; the ceremony by which a man and woman become husband and wife.

marriageable, mar'rij-abl, *adj.*, *suitable for marriage*; capable of union.—*n.* **mar'riageableness.**

Marsala, mar-sä'la, *n.* a light wine resembling sherry, from *Marsala* in Sicily.

Marsh, märsh, *n.* a tract of low *wet land*; a morass, swamp, or fen.—*adj.* pertaining to wet or boggy places. [A.S. *mersc*, Dutch, *maerasch, maersche—maer*, old Fr. *mare*, E. *mere*, a collection of water, allied to L. *mare*, the sea.] See **Marine.**

marshy, märsh'i, *adj.*, *pertaining to* or *produced in marshes*; abounding in marshes.—*n.* **marsh'iness.**

Marshal, mär'shal, *n.* lit. and orig. *an officer who had the care of horses*; a title of honour applied to the holder of various high offices; the chief officer who regulated combats in the lists; a master of ceremonies; a herald; in France, an officer of the highest military rank.—*v.t.* to arrange in order; to lead, as a herald:—*pr.p.* mar'shalling; *pa.p.* mar'shalled. [old Fr. *mareschal*, Ger. *marschall—mähre*, a horse, *schalk*, a servant.]

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This page, though slightly narrower and shorter than those of the Dictionary itself, will serve to give an idea of the nature and plan of the work.

Attention is particularly requested to the marked words at foot of the page.

Marrow, mar'rō, *n.*, *the soft, fatty* matter in the cavities of the bones; the pith of certain plants; the essence, or best part.—*adj.* **mar'rowy.** [A.S. *mearh*, Ice. *mergr*, Dan. *marg*, Ger. *mark*; A.S. *mearu*, Dutch, *murw*, soft, Ice. *mōr*, fat.]

marrow-bone, mar'rō-bōn, *n.*, *a bone containing marrow.*

marrowish, mar'rō-ish, *adj.*, *of the nature of* or *resembling marrow.*

Marry, mar'ri, *v.t.* lit. *to provide with a male;* to take for husband or wife; to unite in matrimony.—*v.i.* to enter into the married state; to take a husband or a wife:—*pr.p.* mar'rying; *pa.p.* mar'ried. [Fr. *marier*, L. *marito—maritus*, a husband—*mas*, *maris*, a male.]

marriage, mar'rij, *n.*, *the act of marrying* or *state of being married;* the ceremony by which a man and woman become husband and wife.

marriageable, mar'rij-abl, *adj.*, *suitable for marriage;* capable of union.—*n.* **mar'riageableness.**

Marsala, mar-sä'la, *n.* a light wine resembling sherry, from *Marsala* in Sicily.

Marsh, märsh, *n.* a tract of low *wet land;* a morass, swamp, or fen.—*adj.* pertaining to wet or boggy places. [A.S. *mersc*, Dutch, *maerasch*, *maersche—maer*, old Fr. *mare*, E. *mere*, a collection of water, allied to L. *mare*, the sea.] See **Marine.**

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